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This article may need to be rewritten to wikipedia quality standards. You can help. The conversation page may contain suggestions. (January 2014) Part of a series of onEcological economicsHumanty Economic System is seen as a subsystem of the Global Environment Concept Carrying Capacity Environmental Market Failure Environmental Model Competition Ecosystem Services Embodied Energy Accounting Entropy Pessimism Index of Sustainable Economic Well-Being Natural Capital Spaceship Earth Sustainable State Economy Sustainable, Weak vs. Strong Uneconomical Growth People Sergey Podolinsky Frederick Soddy Nicolas Georgescu-Roegen Kenneth E. Bouldering E. F. Schumacher Robert Ayres Herman Daily Joan Martinez Alier Richard B. Norgaard Robert Costanza Tim Jackson Clive Spas Organization : The International Society of Environmental Economics operates wealth, virtual wealth and debt Entropy Law and economic process Limits the growth of small beautiful prosperity without the growth of the ecological economy (magazine) Related themes Degrowth Environmental Economics Foreign Green Policy Planetary Frontiers Post-Growth Thermodynamics Vte Although related themes, sustainable development and sustainability of various concepts. Weak sustainability is an idea in an environmental economy that states that human capital can replace natural capital. It is based on the work of Nobel laureates Robert Solow and John Hartwick. Despite its weak resilience, strong resilience implies that human capital and natural capital complement each other, but are not interchangeable. This idea gained more political attention as the discussions on sustainable development developed in the late 1980s and early 1990s. A key development was the Rio Summit in 1992, at which the vast majority of nation-states pledged to ensure sustainable development. This commitment was demonstrated by the signing of agenda 21, the Global Action Plan for Sustainable Development. Weak resilience has been defined using concepts such as human capital and natural capital. Human (or produced) capital includes resources such as infrastructure, manpower and knowledge. Natural capital covers environmental assets such as fossil fuels, biodiversity and other ecosystem structures and functions related to ecosystem services. With very little resilience, total capital gains and natural capital remain unchanged over time. It is important to note that unconditional replacement between different types of capital is permitted in conditions of weak sustainability. This means that natural resources can shrink as long as the Capital. Examples include the degradation of the ozone layer, rainforests and coral reefs if they are accompanied by benefits to human capital could be an increase in the increase in if capital remains unchanged over time between generations of equity, and therefore sustainable development, is achieved. Coal mining and its use for electricity generation can be an example of weak sustainability. Natural coal is replaced by manufactured goods that are electricity. Electricity, in turn, is used to improve the quality of life in the family (e.g. cooking, lighting, heating, cooling and operating wells to supply water in some villages) and for industrial purposes (growing the economy by producing other resources using electricity-powered machines). Case studies of weak resilience in practice have had both positive and negative results. The concept of weak resilience continues to attract much criticism. Some even suggest that the concept of sustainability is redundant. Other approaches are promoted, including social wills, that focus attention on neoclassical theory in general. Strong sustainability implies that economic and environmental capital is complementary but not interchangeable. Strong sustainability recognizes there are certain functions that the environment performs that cannot be duplicated by humans or human capital. The ozone layer is one example of an ecosystem service that is crucial to human existence, is part of natural capital, but it is difficult to duplicate. In contrast to weak sustainability, strong sustainability emphasizes on an environmental scale over economic benefits. This means that nature has a right to exist and that it is borrowed and must be passed down from generation to generation, still untouched in its original form. An example of strong sustainability is the production of office carpet tiles from used car tires. In this case, office carpets and other products are made from used car tires that would be sent to landfill. The Origins and Theory capital approach to sustainability and intergenerational equity To understand the concept of weak sustainability, the first step is to explore a capital approach to sustainability. This is the key to the idea of intergenerational justice. This means a fair distribution of resources and assets between generations. Decision-makers, both in theory and in practice, need a concept to assess whether intergenerational justice is achieved. The approach to capital lends itself to this challenge. In this context, we must distinguish between different types of capital. The most common are human capital (e.g. skills, knowledge) and natural capital (e.g. minerals, water). The concept is that the volume of which has a generation at its disposal is crucial to its development. Development is then called sustainable when it leaves the capital reserve at least unchanged. [12] [13] [13] development Weak paradigm of sustainability stems from the 70s. It began as a continuation of the neoclassical theory of economic growth, given non-renewable natural resources as a factor of production. However, it only really entered the mainstream in the 1990s in the context of a discourse about sustainable development. At the time of its creation, sustainability was interpreted as a requirement of preserving, untouched, the environment as we find it today in all its forms. Brundtland's report, for example, states that the loss of plant and animal species can significantly limit the potential of future generations. As a result, sustainable development requires the conservation of plant and animal species. The development of Wilfred Beckerman's theory suggests that the absolutist concept of sustainable development that was given above is morally repugnant. Most of the world's population lives in abject poverty. Taking this into account, as well as acute degradation, the use of vast resources in an attempt to save some species from extinction could be justified. These species do not bring any real benefit to society, other than the possible value for knowing about their continued existence. He argues that such a challenge would include the use of resources that could be directed towards the world's more pressing problems. Examples include increased access to clean drinking water or sanitation in third world countries. Many environmentalists have turned their attention to the idea of weak sustainability. This allows some natural resources to be reduced as long as sufficient compensation is provided by increasing other resources. The result is usually an increase in human capital. This compensation is paid in the form of sustainable human well-being. This is illustrated in a well-known definition by David Pearce, author of numerous works on sustainable development. It defines sustainability as implying something about maintaining a person's level of well-being (or well-being) so that it can improve but never decline (or, no more than temporarily). This means that sustainable development will not diminish over time. Intergenerational equity assumes that each next generation has at least as much capital at its disposal as the previous generation. The idea of leaving capital at least unchanged is widely accepted. The question arises whether one form of capital can be replaced by another. This is at the heart of the debate between weak and strong sustainability, and how intergenerational equality should be achieved. It is also important to note that strong resilience does not share the notion of mutual capacity. Since the 1990s, there has been fierce debate about the replacement of natural and human capital. While proponents of weak resilience mostly believe that they followers tend to dispute the possibility of mutuality. The role of governance and policy recommendations The implementation of weak sustainability in management can be considered theoretically and practically through the Hartwick rule. In the resources economy, the Hartwick rule determines the amount of investment in human capital needed to compensate for the decline in non-renewable resources. Solow has shown that, given the degree of substitution between human capital and natural capital, one way to develop a sustainable consumption programme for the economy is to accumulate human capital. With a fairly rapid accumulation, the effect of reducing depleted resources is counteracted by services provided by increased human capital reserves. Hartwick's rule is often referred to as resource investment rent when rent is a cost to a production factor (in this case capital) that exceeds the one required for its current use. This requires that the country invest all the rent received from exhausted resources currently extracted. Pierce and Atkinson and Hamilton later added to Hartwick's rule the theoretical and empirical measure of net investment in human and natural capital (and then human capital), which became known as genuine savings. Genuine savings measure net changes in the capital reserves produced, natural and human reserves estimated in monetary terms. The purpose of management, therefore, should be to keep the true savings above zero or zero. In this sense, it is similar to the green accounting, which tries to take into account the environmental costs in the financial results of operations. A key example of this is the World Bank, which now regularly publishes a comparative and comprehensive set of genuine savings estimates for more than 150 countries, called Adjusted Savings. The Norwegian State Pension Fund is a prime example of weak resilience in practice. State-owned Norwegian oil company Statoil ASA has so far invested more than \$1 trillion in surplus oil in its pension portfolio. Oil, a type of natural capital, was exported by Norway in huge quantities. As a result, the fund provides long-term income for the population in exchange for a limited resource, effectively increasing the total capital available to Norway above the original level. This example shows how weak resilience and replacement can be skillfully applied nationally, although it is recognized that its application is very limited on a global scale. In this application, the Hartwick rule found that the pension fund was sufficient capital to compensate for the depletion of oil resources. Less positive is the case Pacific nation Nauru. A significant phosphate deposit was found on the island in 1900, and now about 80% of the island uninhabitable after more than 100 years of mining. In parallel with this extraction, the people of Nauru have enjoyed a high per capita income for the last few decades of the twentieth century. The money from phosphate mining led to the creation of a trust fund, which was estimated to be up to \$1 billion. This development of Nauru followed the logic of weak resilience and almost led to the complete destruction of the environment. This case is an eloquent argument against weak resilience, suggesting that the replacement of natural to human-made capital cannot be reversible in the long run. Critics strong against weak model of stability See. also: Environmental Economy - Weak and Strong Sustainability, and Nicolas Georgescu-Roegen - Criticism of the neoclassical economy (weak and strong resilience) Martinez-Alier's address 23 concern about the effects of measuring weak resilience, following the results of work conducted by Pierce and Atkinson in the early 1990s. like the global economy as a whole. This view may be erroneous, since the world (perhaps) will not be sustainable if all countries have resource intensity and pollution levels in many industrialized countries. Industrialization does not necessarily equate to sustainable development. According to The Calculations and Atkinson, the Japanese economy is one of the most resilient economies in the world. The reason for this is that its savings rate is so high. This trend continues to this day and therefore exceeds the depreciation of both natural and man-made capital. Thus, they suggest that it is the gross negligence of factors other than cost savings in measuring sustainability that makes weak sustainability an inappropriate concept. The integrative model of sustainability has an economy fully located in society and society, fully located in the environment. In other words, the economy is a subset of society, and society is completely dependent on the environment. This interdependence means that any issue of sustainability must be dealt with holistically. A diagram indicating the relationship between the three pillars of sustainability, suggesting that both the economy and society are constrained by environmental constraints, other paradigm flaws include difficulties in measuring savings rates and their inherent problems in quantifying the many different attributes and functions of the biophysical world in monetary terms. Including all human and biophysical resources under the same headline capital, fossil fuel depletion, reduced biodiversity and so on, potentially resilience. As Gowdy and O'Hara put it aptly: Until the criterion of weak sustainability is met, with savings outpacing capital depletion, there is no conflict between the destruction of species and ecosystems or the depletion of fossil fuels, and the goal of sustainability. In opposing weak sustainability, strong proponents of sustainable development argue that we need a smaller, scale decentralized lifestyle based on greater self-reliance in order to create a socio-economic system that is less destructive to nature. Strong resilience does not provide benefits for the replacement of human and human capital with land, water and their biodiversity. Products created by mankind cannot replace the natural capital found in ecosystems. Another critical weakness of the concept is related to environmental resilience. According to Van Den Berg, sustainability can be seen as a global concept of structural stability based on the idea that there may be multiple, locally stable ecosystems. Thus, sustainable development can be directly linked to sustainability. With this in mind, weak resilience can cause extreme sensitivity to either natural disturbances (e.g. diseases in agriculture with a small variety of crops) or economic shocks (as outlined in the Nauru example above). This high level of sensitivity in regional systems in the face of external factors draws attention to the important inadequacy of weak resilience. Rejection of weak and strong models Some critics went even further, rejecting the whole concept of sustainability. Beckerman's influential work concludes that weak resilience is excessive and illogical. He believes that sustainability only makes sense in its strong form, but it requires a subscription to a morally repugnant and totally impossible goal. He said that he regretted that so much time had been wasted on the whole concept of sustainable development. Contrary to this, it can be argued that even weak sustainability measures are better than the absence of any action or action at all. Others felt that a better approach to sustainable development in the case of social wills could be more common. This change will free us from a zero-sum game in which our profits are an automatic loss for future generations. The social approach to the will sees the problem in a different light, changing to what, rather than how much, we leave to future generations. When the problem is formulated as how much it always means that a certain amount of resource should be used and some left. Daniel Bromley uses the rainforest example to illustrate his argument. If we decide to use 25% forests and leave the rest, but the next time we make a decision, we'll start all over again and use 25% of what's left, and so on, eventually there will be left. By focusing on the wills of specific rights and opportunities for future generations, we can shrug off the straight jacket of substitution and marginal compromises of neoclassical theory. Inquiries: b c Solow, R.M. (1974). 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